State Government

- ★ *For an Adequate Highway System*
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Among the States

Compact on Women Prisoners.—As a means of improving their prison programs for women, with more adequate care and rehabilitation for them, representatives of the South Central States have developed and approved the provisions of a South Central Interstate Corrections Compact. The compact, approved at a two-day conference in Oklahoma City on February 18–19, is open to ratification by **Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, Missouri, Oklahoma, Tennessee** and **Texas.** It establishes a legal basis upon which any two or more of the party states may enter into special contracts for joint incarceration of their women prisoners. For the period before the compact comes into effect, an interstate interim continuing committee will function, under the chairmanship of Senator Kirksey M. Nix of Oklahoma. Several of the 1955 legislative sessions are considering the compact, and the Tennessee General Assembly ratified it before adjournment in March.

•

Idaho Succession.—The Idaho legislature has approved a resolution proposing a constitutional amendment to allow unlimited succession in the office of Governor. The state constitution does not now permit the Chief Executive to succeed himself. The amendment will be submitted to the voters at the 1956 general election.

•

Georgia Finances.—Georgia will operate this year under the old appropriations law. At the request of Governor Marvin Griffin the General Assembly held the line on new appropriations and approved of an interim State Problem Study Commission on state needs and finances. With full powers to investigate all facets of state government, the commission has the task of hearing all new departmental requests, recommending a streamlined state government, and suggesting any necessary tax increases. The report of the study commission is due in June.

•

Utah Is Debt Free.—On February 13 Utah's State Treasurer, Sid Lambourne, mailed a final payment of $170,000 to discharge the state's bonded indebtedness in full. Utah thus is free of debt for the first time in its history. Some of the outstanding bonds have not been turned in by individuals holding them; they may have been destroyed or lost. Sufficient money has been placed on deposit to retire all the outstanding bonds, and the Attorney General has been asked to determine how long the state must keep the money on deposit to pay for them.

•

Alabama Highway Session.—A special highway session of the Alabama legislature has adopted a $50 million program of rural roads, to be constructed by a new highway authority. Bonds are to be financed from the proceeds of a one-cent increase in gasoline and diesel fuel taxes.

Transportation Conference.—The Governors of **Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Kentucky, Nebraska** and **Iowa** met at Evansville, Indiana, on February 21 in a Midwestern Regional Transportation Conference. The conference was planned to promote interstate exchange of ideas for improvements of transportation facilities, including toll roads, highways, waterways and railways. Also in attendance were administrative officials of the six states and a number of federal representatives.

•

Robot Toll Collectors.—New Jersey's Garden State Parkway has instituted a robot toll collector with built-in enforcement facilities. It flashes a green light for the honest, paying customers, but red lights and an alarm bell for the short-changer or deadbeat. Moreover, the alarm bell activates a camera which photographs the license plate of the "skipper." The device has a wide-mouthed hopper in which the motorist may drop the twenty-five cent fee. The present robot collector, a pilot model, will undergo extensive tests before it is used more widely. In addition to its other features, it will provide a complete printed record of all cash receipts and other statistical information for auditing and other uses by the parkway authorities.

•

New Hampshire Toll Roads.—New Hampshire is pushing construction of two new toll roads to be put into use this year and next. Scheduled for operation in 1955 is a central turnpike running 35 miles from the Massachusetts boundary by way of Nashua, Manchester and Concord in the direction of the White Mountains. The new road is expected to bring this resort area more than half an hour closer to metropolitan Boston. The other facility will run from Portsmouth on the Atlantic Coast to Rochester in the direction of Lake Winnipesaukee. Further extensions may possibly be authorized at the current legislative session. A $33 million bond issue, used for the current projects, was backed by the state's full faith and credit, and the bonds were financed at interest rates running from 1.48 per cent to 1.84 per cent. This is considered a very favorable bond cost, much lower than average. The state highway department handled all engineering details itself, at an over-all cost of 2 per cent of the project totals. No separate "authority" was established for the New Hampshire toll-road system.

•

Driver's Tests for the Elderly.—Traffic safety experts in **Illinois** have reported that a program of testing drivers more than 70 years old has helped reduce accidents. Under legislation enacted in 1953, the Secretary of State is authorized to test motorists beyond that age. Approximately 47,000 tests were given during the first seven months of the program, and of this number slightly more than 13,000 failed the examination. These results, however, were not necessarily final, since a person is

permitted to take three tests within a year. The major cause of failure to pass the test was faulty eyesight. Other important reasons included inadequate knowledge of road signs, unfamiliarity with the rules of the road and failure of the operating test. Experience gained under the program indicated that the most common driving violations by motorists 70 years old are failure to bring a car to a stop at a stop sign or traffic signal, failure to use electrical or arm signals when driving, and turning from the wrong lane.

●

Drivers' Violations File.—**Michigan** recently has initiated a central violations file on which the lifetime driving records of all motorists in the state will be recorded. The file is being built up as drivers obtain their first licenses or renew their licenses. All future traffic violations, as well as those for recent years obtainable from available records, will be coded in the new file. As it discloses drivers with bad driving habits, they either will be given further education in safe driving habits or barred from use of the highways.

●

Tennessee Speed Limits.—As a result of action by the 1955 General Assembly, statutory speed limits will govern all vehicles traveling on Tennessee highways. Maximum daytime speed for automobiles, buses and small trucks is set at 65 miles an hour; for night driving the limit is 55 m.p.h. For large trucks the maximum speed, day and night, is 50 miles an hour. The legislature's action carries out a recommendation of the Governor's Emergency Traffic Safety Committee.

●

Arkansas Children's Colony.—One of the first laws enacted by the 1955 legislative session in Arkansas creates an Arkansas Children's Colony for the care, custody, treatment and training of mentally defective children. A seven-member board is to supervise the institution. Parents and guardians of inmates, if financially able, are required to pay maintenance, training and educational costs.

●

New Jersey Narcotics Report.—The first report of the New Jersey Commission on Narcotic Control, with recommendations for strengthening the state's narcotic drug laws, has been submitted to the legislature. Among its recommendations are: (1) development of facilities in the Neuropsychiatric Institute for hospitalization and rehabilitation of narcotic addicts; (2) more adequate control of the purchase of hypodermic needles and syringes; (3) tightened provisions for arresting persons who use a narcotic drug in a bordering state but are apprehended in New Jersey. The commission opposes amendment of the state narcotic drug laws to conform to recent changes in the Federal Narcotic Drug Act until all federal regulations on this point have been promulgated.

●

Georgia Natural Resources.—The Georgia Water Use and Conservation Committee has reported more than 1,300 specific water problems in a survey of all except two of the state's counties. Some 2,000 persons—business and professional officials as well as representatives of government—took part in the fact-finding investigation. The committee was formed last year to study water needs and suggest water statute revisions.

●

Indiana Water Resources.—The 1955 Indiana legislature has established a committee to study laws on water rights and water management. During the previous biennium a committee of the Legislative Advisory Commission surveyed possible means of alleviating conditions resulting from inadequate water supply in parts of the state. The legislation creating the new committee declares that waters in natural streams, lakes or other bodies of water are a natural resource and subject to control and regulation for the public welfare.

●

Golden Beauty in Massachusetts.—The Massachusetts Experiment Station at the University of Massachusetts has been awarded "All-America" honors for developing a new variety of sweet corn, known as Golden Beauty. William L. Lachman, a member of the research staff in the department of vegetable crops since 1936, was instrumental in the research and in developing the new strain. He also has brought forth several other new varieties, including such interesting titles as Barbecue, Golden Jewel, Pilgrim, and Gold Mine. The new Golden Beauty is reported to be a heavy yielder, disease-resistant and of high quality. It is an early sweet corn that can be grown in areas with short seasons.

●

New Jersey Park.—New Jersey recently spent $2 million to purchase 56,000 acres of the Wharton tract in the south central part of the state, and has an option to buy more than 40,000 acres additional this year for about $1 million. This vast area of pine and cedar, lakes and streams is only two hours away by car from New York City and is even closer to the Philadelphia area. It is scheduled to become a playground for campers, fishing fans, hunters and other vacationers, and it contains substantial areas of bogs which are considered to be a happy hunting ground for botanists. The tract is full of history. For example, cannon balls were made there for General Washington from bog ore during the Revolution. There are tiny ghost towns scattered through the acreage, too. The tract includes 93,400 acres of forest, 4,000 of cleared land, 2,000 of cranberry bogs, and 600 of lakes and ponds.

●

Yellowstone Concessions.—The **Wyoming** legislature has authorized preliminary work on a proposal by Governor Milward L. Simpson that the state buy and operate concessions in Yellowstone National Park. The Governor made the proposal in a special message at the beginning of the final legislative week. Both houses suspended rules to rush the bill to passage. The law provides for a five-member commission, appointed by the Governor, to work on the project with a four-man legislative committee. Before final action on the project, estimated to cost $9 million, a special session of the legislature would need to be called to approve the purchase.

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In this article General Lucius D. Clay, Chairman of the President's Advisory Committee on a National Highway Program, describes outstanding features of the President's highway plan now before Congress. General Clay emphasizes that it is a program of federal-state cooperation, in its inception and in what it proposes. In addition to dealing with the more general features of the plan, he underlines the importance of controlled access to the improved highways proposed, and he discusses needs for state legislation in this connection.

For an Adequate Highway System

By General Lucius D. Clay

Congress now has for consideration the ten-year national highway plan that grew out of cooperative action recommended by the Governors' Conference of July, 1954.

The President invited the cooperation of the Governors; set up an interagency committee within the federal establishment to parallel a special seven-man Governors' Conference highway committee in considering the joint interest of the federal government and the states in roads and their financing; and finally, in September, appointed the President's Advisory Committee on a National Highway Program to work with both the federal and state groups and report to him.

The Advisory Committee's report, and the President's special message transmitting it to the Congress on February 22, is available from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C., as House Document No. 93.

Federal-State Cooperation Would Continue

In brief, the Advisory Committee proposal calls for a greatly expanded program of highway construction during the next ten years along the same lines of federal and state cooperation that have been successfully followed since the enactment of the basic Federal-Aid Highway Act of 1916.

Expansion is essential because traffic volume has been rapidly outgrowing the capacity of existing roads and streets. The existing traffic jam is bad—economically bad and also hazardous to human life. Future congestion will be far worse unless highway improvements are stepped up.

We now have more than 58 million motor vehicles registered—one for every 700 feet of traffic lane in the nation, urban and rural. Registrations are expected to total 81 million within ten years. Travel likewise will increase—from an estimated 557 billion vehicle-miles in 1954 to an anticipated 814 billion in 1965.

This travel is, of course, not just for travel's sake. Our streets and highways are literally the production and distribution "assembly lines" of American industry and agriculture. They are the web of military and civil defense. And they are the "magic carpets" on which workers ride to their jobs, children to school, vacationers to their meccas, and so on.

Expanding Economy Requires Road Improvement

Our population is growing; it is expected to exceed 180 million before 1965. The economy is expanding likewise; it will increase nearly 50 per cent in the same period, according to the Joint Congressional Committee on the Economic Report.

Before World War II we did not hesitate to spend 1.1 to 1.7 per cent of our gross national product on the improvement of our highways. Today, the need for improvement is greater than ever. The aggregate sums needed to accelerate the program may seem high when viewed only as total figures; but they are not in relation to past expenditures and to our much larger and still growing national product.

Total construction needs of all highway systems during the next ten years are estimated at $101 billion, including completion to modern standards of the 37,600 miles of the presently designated National System of Interstate Highways. The present program if continued unchanged would make available for all of our highways and streets during that period approximately $47 billion, leaving a gap in the needs total of $54 billion.

In essence, the report of the President's Advisory Committee is a financial plan for meeting this deficiency. The committee concurred with the Governors' Conference in recommending to the President that the federal share of this needed construction program be increased to about 30 per cent of the total, with states, cities, counties, and other

agencies remaining responsible for financing the remaining 70 per cent.

The committee then centered its attention on the National System of Interstate Highways, the selection of which was authorized by Congress in 1944. The committee recognized that this maximum 40,000-mile network is predominantly national in scope and function. It joins forty-two state capitals and 90 per cent of all cities over 50,000 in population. It carries about 20 per cent of all intercity traffic, yet amounts to a little more than 1 per cent of all road mileage. It is the key network from the standpoint of federal interest in productivity and national defense.

The committee therefore recommended the modernization of this interstate system during a ten-year period, together with the most necessary urban arterials connecting with it. This is estimated to cost $27 billion. The committee also recommended that state and local participation be $2 billion of this amount, which would continue the present minimum amount of the state and local community contribution to this system.

Federal Share Is 30 Per Cent

Thus the 30 per cent federal share of a $101 billion program would consist of two parts:

1. The traditional federal aid to the states, continued in the amounts authorized by the Congress in 1954, with some adjustments in the amounts for urban areas and federal-domain roads, and omitting the interstate-system authorization. In ten years this part would total about $6 billion.

2. The $25 billion direct federal share in the ten-year modernization of the interstate system, including the needs in both the rural and urban portions of this system.

Now how can the $25 billion be financed? The committee investigated the federal gasoline tax and found indications that returns from it, in an expanding economy over the next thirty years, would meet all the costs of continued federal assistance to primary and secondary roads as outlined above and in addition would service, over a thirty-year period, a $25-billion bond issue which would enable these roads to be built within the next ten years.

Corporation Would Issue Bonds

Since roads are a capital asset, the federal share of the costs of the interstate system construction could be financed by a $25-billion bond issue by a Federal Highway Corporation created for this purpose by Congress, with these bonds fully taxable.

The committee has recommended that the Federal Highway Corporation have a Board of Directors composed of three citizens appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate, with the Secretaries of Treasury and Commerce as ex-officio members. The Board of the Corporation should be responsible for the development of financial policy and serve when necessary as an appeals board to resolve major points of difference in policy determination between federal and state authorities which may arise under the program.

In the expenditure of funds provided for the interstate system, the committee has recommended that Congress provide legislation to guide the corporation in allocating the funds in a manner which would reflect the needs of the system in the respective states as jointly determined by the Commissioner of Public Roads and the states.

The committee considered the fact that some 2,000 miles of the 38,000-mile interstate system have been completed, either through state bond issues or through toll-road financing, that an additional 1,000 miles have been authorized for construction under toll-road financing and another 1,000 miles authorized as freeway construction without tolls, and that some still additional mileage is receiving consideration for toll-road financing.

The committee believes that the federal government should not embark on toll-road financing, or guarantee toll-road bonds, or assume deficits in toll-road financing.

States Would Get Credit for Advance Financing

On the other hand, since the committee's goal is a maximum highway program, it believes that those states which have already built road sections, to standard, on the interstate system, deserve some credit. It therefore has recommended: that states which built sections of the designated interstate system between 1947 and 1951, either as state-owned freeways or by toll authority, be given reimbursement to the extent of 40 per cent of the roads value; that for such construction from 1951 to 1954 this credit be 70 per cent; and that after 1954 full credit be allowed, provided that all of the funds given to the states for this purpose be used on other federal-aid road systems, and provided further that at the time all other federal-aid highway funds available to the states had been matched by them. It is the committee's belief that this policy would greatly assist other needed work on the federal-aid system.

With the federal government providing $25 billion for the program, and with state and local participation contributing another $2 billion, a $27-billion deficit would still remain if all of our road needs of the next ten years are to be met. The committee believes that the reimbursement to the states for previous expenditures as outlined would

assist the states in a reduction of this deficit. The remainder of the program should continue either as a joint federal-state responsibility, as in the case of primary and secondary roads, or as a local government responsibility.

Access Control Would Protect Investment

A vital feature of the committee's financial plan for an adequate highway network provides for protecting the tremendous capital investment of public funds and the associated and dependent private investments in those facilities necessary to service the highway user with food, lodging, vehicle fuel, and similar items.

Past experience has demonstrated conclusively that much of our present highway inadequacy results from the need to replace roads that have become choked and unsafe because of the countless thousands of access points created every few feet along many of our roads, into and out of which vehicles move constantly. Motorists and service establishments alike suffer (1) when a road cannot accommodate the traffic for which it was designed, due to disorganized conflicting movement on these innumerable grade intersections and driveways that feed into and out of it, and (2) when new roads, which had to be built to meet the public demand to solve the congestion problem, draw traffic away from the old location and its established businesses. Aside from the serious consequences to business interests in this relocation problem occurring on about a ten-year cycle in many instances, there is the very practical problem that we are rapidly exhausting any locations to which a new highway can be moved in many of the most congested areas.

One of the principal features of the committee's ten-year plan, therefore, is the provision now for adequate right-of-way to permit control of access to the improved highways. Control of access to the degree required by traffic conditions is essential to the protection of life and the investments in property. It is also essential to preserve the capacity of the highway. So far as the investment of funds in major roads is concerned, this provision for the required control of access is fundamental. It assures that roads financed by the sale of bonds will still be serving efficiently when the bonds mature at a future date. Even though control of access may not be essential to a particular section of road at the time of construction, provision should be made at the time of construction to permit future application when it becomes necessary. We must not repeat the costly mistakes of the past in large investments made in the future. The wise regulation of the needed access openings on highways and streets is emerging as an effective device in diminishing highway hazards; improving the efficiency of highway travel and stabilizing adjacent property values and investments.

The uncontrolled entrance of vehicles onto a heavily traveled highway from multitudinous driveways creates extremely hazardous and congested conditions. The once-rural road often becomes, in effect, a business street and loses its value as an arterial route for through traffic. Controlled-access is the only way to prevent the recurrence of the ribbon development along new location and thus preserve the tremendous investments made for highway and related facilities.

State Legislation Is Needed

A study made for the President's Advisory Committee by the Highway Research Board shows that in many states important revisions of enabling legislation governing the financing and construction of state highways will be needed for efficient execution of the program. These include:

1. The advance acquisition of land necessary for right-of-way.
2. The control of access. This is particularly important from the standpoint of cost.
3. The integration through cooperative working agreements of state, city and county agencies concerned with street and highway research, planning and construction.

Model Law Has Basic Elements

Basic elements of a controlled-access law are included in an available model law, as follows:

1. Broad declaration of legislative policy relating to controlled-access highways.
2. Concise definition of terms involved, with "acquisition of property" including the right of access, air, light and view.
3. For the state highway department and all local units: authority to establish controlled-access highways on a statewide basis.
4. Authorization to the state highway department to design the facility in a way that will best serve the public interest.
5. Extension of the authority to control access to include existing highways as well as highways on new location.
6. Authority to construct adjacent frontage roads where necessary.
7. Prohibition of physical and functional encroachments, except those permitted by the state highway department.
8. Authorization for intergovernmental agreements between the state and its local units in planning, financing, land acquisition, construction or maintenance of a controlled-access facility.

(Continued on page 95)

In these pages Val Peterson, Federal Civil Defense Administrator and former Governor of Nebraska, deals with one of the toughest problems besetting America: How can we best prepare to save the civilian population and maintain its ability to fight back in the event of atomic or hydrogen bomb attack? Governor Peterson places the primary emphasis on the leadership of state and municipal governments, assisted by the federal government, together with the voluntary cooperation of citizens everywhere. Most of the preparation still lies before us. In the author's words: "Some localities may be ready for a small tornado, but they are not ready for the smallest atomic bomb." Governor Peterson is a former President of the Council of State Governments and former Chairman of the Governors' Conference.

The States and Civil Defense

By VAL PETERSON *Administrator*
Federal Civil Defense Administration

NO ONE can predict with certainty what the Russians will do—or when. But we know they are determined to dominate the world and have repeatedly demonstrated their willingness to use force against anyone who stands in their way.

If the cold war becomes hot, civilian populations will be attacked immediately. Effects would reach everyone in the United States, regardless of his location or occupation. The Air Force concedes that a deadly proportion of the enemy bombers would break through our best system of detection and interception. Likewise, our bombers would break through theirs. The ability of either side to reach the other would make the exchange of attacks on civilian populations a mutual knockdown.

The consequence is plain. The one who is able to pick himself up—who has an effective civil defense—will have as much hope of victory as may remain to either devastated nation in an atomic war. If we are not able to pick ourselves up and fight back, the knockdown becomes a knockout. That is why no responsible government at any level anywhere in the United States can afford to neglect civil defense.

Responsibility

The Federal Civil Defense Act (of 1950) declares it to be "the intent of Congress that responsibility for civil defense shall be vested primarily in the several States and their political subdivisions."

The act (which became Public Law 920) places responsibility for planning with the Federal Civil Defense Administration but reserves to each state the right to do what it chooses with any federal plan. In so acting, the Congress not only rejected any federalized peacetime civil defense force; at the same time it laid the groundwork for a national civil defense structure in three superposed levels. It gave the high level authority to coordinate the activities at each lower level, but withheld statutory authority to control.

For example, the only forces controlled by the Federal Civil Defense Administrator—even under attack conditions—are non-military employees of the federal government. Generally, a Governor controls directly only the mobile support groups which he is authorized by statute to organize; and local volunteers commit themselves to serve only in their own political subdivisions and in neighboring subdivisions with which there is a mutual aid agreement. The civil defense of the nation is a voluntary system in which a citizen does only what he chooses to do.

Functions of FCDA

In peacetime, the basic functions of the Federal Civil Defense Administration are:

To develop a national civil defense plan, backed by research.

To generalize it by issuing information about the things that people need to know and do.

To train local civil defense officials when designated by the states and subdivisions.

To furnish the states some of the essential civil defense equipment.

To stockpile other supplies for attack distribution.

In wartime, the basic functions of the Federal Civil Defense Administration are:

To warn of an oncoming attack.

To advise the civil defense organizations of states and subdivisions under attack.

To coordinate the interstate movement of aid.

To distribute the federal stockpile of attack supplies.

To coordinate the nationwide jobs of other fed-

eral agencies.

To report the effect of the attack to the President and to the people.

To take part in decisions concerning the emergency restoration of communications, transportation and other essential functions.

Pre-attack Evacuation

Increased destructive power of weapons and increased enemy capability to deliver them have outmoded shelters in buildings in the heart of a city. And since the nation does not seem disposed at this time to undertake a broad multi-million dollar shelter program, pre-attack evacuation is the only alternative.

Despite its problems, evacuation is not impossible. Some cities have already held limited evacuation tests. Others have undertaken studies which will lead to evacuation plans. But the final word on evacuation lies with the population of each city. People now know (and they are being given more information each day) what a hydrogen bomb can do; if they are warned that one is coming their way, they will not sit and wait for extermination. They will get up and go.

The responsibility of each Mayor is to make it an orderly movement rather than a flight or a panic. Evacuation cannot be improvised on the occasion. It must be planned and rehearsed until the public knows about it and has confidence in it.

Not all city directors have accepted evacuation. They have, in fact, debated it in the public press. But few will dismiss it without finding out more about it. Certainly, no Mayor of a large city, directly responsible for so many lives, can be satisfied with the untested judgment of his own mind—or the untested judgment of any other mind. Evacuation cannot simply be thought out. It must be tried out.

FCDA believes that within the next few months pre-attack evacuation of target cities will be an established tactic of civil defense. Although it will not outmode or decrease the importance of other civil defense services, such as firefighting and rescue, it will nevertheless call for a shift in emphasis to police (traffic) and welfare (mass care).

Radioactive Fallout

Radiation is not a new problem to civil defense, but it has grown in importance with the increase in size and destructive power of weapons. Detonations of hydrogen devices have pointed up a problem which has become known as "fallout." Fallout is merely the filtering back down of highly radioactive particles of matter which were drawn up into the air at the time of the explosion.

FCDA is fashioning a counter-action to the fallout problem. The United States Weather Bureau is developing methods of diagramming the pattern and location of the fallout which may settle far downwind from the explosion. Rural populations as well as evacuating city populations will have to move from under it or find shelter from it. Evacuation routes will be affected. So will civil defense services moving to the support of stricken cities.

Mass Care in Evacuation Areas

Evacuation of populations brings civil defense to grips with immense welfare problems. Persons evacuated from their cities must be provided for elsewhere. After a mass attack, the evacuated populations in need could number as many as 70,000,000 from critical target areas alone. Emergency welfare organizations must be developed in states and subdivisions to sustain these evacuated millions.

Support from Unattacked Areas

The destruction of attacked cities would be so complete that a national escape from the attempted knockout would have to be based largely on unattacked areas. Small communities, regardless of their size or remoteness must be prepared. Their citizens must be trained both as individuals and as members of civil defense teams to extend effective assistance not only within their own communities but to neighboring communities in their states, and also to communities in other states if necessary. That is the special civil defense meaning of "support."

FCDA recommends that rural and small city areas send immediate "mobile" support to attacked areas, and be able to render "fixed" support; that is, act as reception areas for the injured and the homeless.

However, neither kind of support can be effective unless it is organized in advance. First, a community must consider its available resources—human and physical. Then it can determine to what extent it is practicable to assemble effective civil defense teams.

The state is responsible for organizing and training mobile support groups and for sending them into action in the event of an attack. Altogether, the scattered resources which can be mobilized in this way from the countryside would be great enough to be a determining factor in confronting the attack successfully.

Unattacked Areas Also Suffer

One of the immediate effects of the bombing of industrial centers will be to cut off the rural sup-

port areas from electric and gasoline power and from transportation. Should electrical power fail, so would production on our highly mechanized modern farms, since manpower is no longer available to do the jobs by hand.

Further, if transportation lines are cut, perishable foods will back up on the farms. To maintain the essential system whereby the cities supply the farms and the farms the cities, it will be necessary to provide a workable system of local priorities in restoring power and transportation.

Rural Areas Are Subject to Biological Warfare

While city populations must be prepared to combat the full effects of nuclear warfare, rural populations must be prepared to combat biological warfare—the introduction of foreign diseases, or the spread of domestic diseases among plants and animals.

In this fight, however, the farmer is likely to receive no warning. He would become aware of the use of biological warfare against him only after it was well under way.

Under authority delegated to it by FCDA, the Department of Agriculture has cooperative programs under way in each state to train additional specialists, who must be on professional call at strategic points ready to diagnose the early signs of biological warfare. Research is proceeding to find new and faster methods of identifying biological warfare agents in air, water and foodstuffs so that effects of biological attack can be minimized immediately.

Smuggled Bombs and Supersonic Missiles

The possibility that enemy agents will smuggle atomic bomb parts into this country, assemble a bomb and plant it somewhere is always present. There is also the possibility of attack by supersonic missiles. Should the enemy use either method of attack, there could be little or no warning.

One means of averting some effects of these types of warfare would be a precautionary and partial evacuation of target areas if the international situation became sufficiently threatening.

The long-range alternative to this would be a systematic dispersal of target cities themselves. The Office of Defense Mobilization has started this with the defense industries and is extending the program to defense-supporting industries. It has not yet been attempted with nondefense industries or with housing.

The Office of Defense Mobilization has found the nation deeply committed to economic and social patterns which cannot be readily disentangled. It has not been possible, for practical reasons, to impose dispersal even on defense industries. The attempt has been to induce industry to disperse by tax concessions. Even with that, it has been necessary to permit some of the largest defense industries to expand in critical target cities instead of splitting up.

The Present Capability to Survive

Realism in civil defense has advanced considerably since the publication of an urban analysis manual in 1953. This manual shows a civil defense director how to calculate probable damage to his own city. It enables him to set up his problem in terms of resources which will be needed to measure up to the emergency.

The first nationwide test of civil defense was conducted by FCDA in June, 1954. It showed how much is still to be done.

Hypothetically, forty-two of the nation's seventy critical target areas were struck by bombs. Federal, state and local civil defense officials were at their duty stations. The situation was unfolded to them in messages from one point after another in the widespread attack.

Among the 55 million persons in the affected areas, the indicated casualties were 9 million killed and 4.5 million injured, although the attack was assumed to be made with bombs of moderate size (from one to eight times as large as the Hiroshima bomb).

As the exercise progressed, it became obvious that none of our cities has been able to organize, equip and man its civil defense force to carry the load of an attack even with moderate-sized bombs —to say nothing of hydrogen bombs. In fact, some of the critical target cities are only now planning to move their civil defense control centers out of the heart of the city.

The unpreparedness of state and local civil defense forces to protect the populations which stayed in the attacked cities was a compelling argument for pre-attack evacuation.

It is evident that we are ready to inflict punishment on an enemy, but are not ourselves ready to meet the same kind of destruction the enemy could send our way.

Cost of Civil Defense

Federal expenditures for all civil defense purposes during fiscal 1954 were $46,525,000. These funds included the operating cost of FCDA; stockpiling of medical, engineering and other supplies; and half the cost of specified supplies and equipment purchased directly by the states and cities. Direct purchases included such items as warning sirens, communications equipment, packaged hos-

pitals, gas masks and mass feeding supplies, as well as civil defense training and educational equipment.

According to the latest consolidated figures (for fiscal 1954), the states spent $33,507,000 for civil defense and their subdivisions spent $15,210,000. The total expenditures of states and cities for civil defense in fiscal 1954 thus were $48,717,000. Altogether, federal, state and local governments spent $95,242,000.

In contrast, the annual expenditures of all citizens for fire and casualty insurance totals some $6 billion. Civil defense is a national insurance policy, and like any other insurance policy, it is valuable not because we are sure something will happen but because we want real protection if it does. How much then, should the nation pay for civil defense?

The federal budget for fiscal 1954 gives military defense $34.5 billion of new money. The military function is to cut down an attack to manageable size. The civil defense function is to survive it. They supplement each other. The next war could be won by the military defense and lost by the civil defense.

Governments at all levels, and the citizens who elect them, have not yet faced the fact that we can have only as much civil defense as we are willing to pay for, and that we had better pay for more.

Assistance to States in Natural Disasters

In January, 1953 the President delegated to FCDA the responsibility for dealing with natural disasters. Since then, forty states and five territories and possessions have made their civil defense agencies responsible for dealing with natural disasters.

The Federal Disaster Act can be invoked only after the Governor of a stricken state applies directly to the President, certifying that the damage outruns the resources of his state, and after the President declares that it is a "major" disaster. The President is guided in this declaration by a formal recommendation from the Federal Civil Defense Administrator.

In general, disaster to a limited area or a single establishment, such as the destruction of a school or a powerhouse, is not rated a "major" disaster. In a year there are 400 to 500 ordinary disasters which bring in the local civil defense forces, but only ten to twenty-five are declared "major" and bring in the FCDA as well.

The President's declaration opens up the resources of all federal agencies to FCDA's command. But the purpose of federal disaster assistance is to supplement rather than supplant the state and local effort. Federal assistance is limited by Congress to operations that are emergency and temporary. Permanent restoration is left for special legislative enactment to fit each situation after it is brought under emergency control.

The Federal Disaster Act has contributed several elements which were conspicuously missing when natural disasters struck this nation in the past. We now have organized preparedness, rapid information as to the extent of the disaster, authority to act, and channels of immediate action. As a result, assistance is supplied when needed instead of some time after the need has passed.

Moreover, the nation is further ahead in its readiness to deal with enemy attack because civil defense has been seasoned by dealing with natural disasters. Disasters have given civil defense in some degree a working equivalent of attack action, and they have demonstrated to the public that civil defense should be ready before an attack. The knowledge and the tools required are the same for a tornado as for an atom bomb—except that for a bomb there must be more of both. Some localities may be ready for a small tornado, but they are not ready for the smallest atomic bomb.

Leadership Needed in States

Civil defense is a primary duty of Governors and Mayors. They have the immediate responsibility not only for saving lives but also for the immediate continuity of state and local governments. After a knockdown, we must not only be able to get to our feet, but also to go on fighting.

Because the civil defense of the nation is a decentralized system of volunteer organizations, it requires leadership that is diffused through the entire structure. The leaders at all levels must recognize the importance of their actions in making civil defense effective. If an attack comes, survival will depend on what each citizen does. If he does not know what to do, it will be too late to learn.

A target city that is not ready to evacuate is not ready to survive. There must be a plan. And it must be tested and practiced. The reaction to a bombing attack—whether it be panic or order—depends on the competence of the local and the neighborhood leadership.

Under the federal, state and local statutes, each political subdivision may organize, equip, train and operate its own civil defense force, each within its own jurisdiction. This structure permits each community to be for itself alone, but the attack situation does not permit it. Planned civil defense support is the shape of the future. If we do not all stand together, we shall go down separately. It is a stark necessity for survival.

We must assume the possibility of an attack against farms as well as cities. We dare not ignore the possibility of biological and chemical warfare

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State Action for Mental Health

A Progress Report

THE PROBLEMS of mental health are being attacked by the states not only on an individual basis, but within recent years through joint action. In all sections of the country states are devising and operating programs of national and regional cooperation for more effective efforts in treating and preventing mental illness.

Impetus for this increasing attention on interstate cooperation comes from the ever-growing responsibility of the states in the mental health field. Two major developments have contributed to the interest and concern.

First has been a growing conviction that the purpose of a mental hospital is not primarily to provide custody for the mentally ill but to use all available scientific knowledge for effective medical treatment.

Second is a wider awareness that emphasis also must be placed on prevention of mental illness and on efforts to achieve positive programs of mental health.

As a consequence the states are increasingly concerned with adequate staffing of mental hospitals, with training of new personnel, with research into the causes of mental illness, and with programs of prevention. Mental health has become a major element of state budgetary consideration.

The states are now spending more than half a billion dollars a year on the care and treatment of the mentally ill in state mental hospitals alone. They house approximately 500,000 patients in these hospitals—approximately 85 per cent of all patients in public mental hospitals. In just nine years, from 1945 to 1953, expenditures for operating mental hospitals soared from around $166 million to $500 million—an increase of about 200 per cent. During the same period, as staffs were enlarged and salaries increased, salary and wage expenditures rose from $89 million to $320 million—almost fourfold. The steady annual increases in these costs have been as follows:

	Salaries and Wages
Year	*Amount*
1945	$ 89,415
1946	105,342
1947	129,969
1948	165,872
1949	195,816
1950	228,194
1951	249,213
1952	288,672
1953	320,020

Within some individual states, expenditures for salaries and wages were multiplied six or seven times. Figures from a few states will illustrate the dramatic rise:

	Amount Expended for Salaries and Wages		*Per cent*
State	*1945*	*1953*	*Increase*
Arkansas	$ 477,000	$2,345,000	391
Connecticut	1,744,000	8,443,000	384
Delaware	160,000	1,005,000	527
Kansas	556,000	3,958,000	610
N. Carolina	913,000	4,983,000	445

Figures for daily per-patient costs for maintenance and operation underline the same story. The average for the United States increased from $1.06 in 1945 to $2.70 in 1953. Here, again, within numerous individual states the increases were spectacular:

	Per Patient Per Diem Maintenance		*Per cent*
State	*1945*	*1953*	*Increase*
Connecticut	$1.17	$3.74	211
Delaware	0.97	3.09	218
Kansas	0.70	3.87	450
Maryland	0.81	2.98	268
Michigan	1.28	3.48	171
Nebraska	1.01	3.61	257
Wisconsin	1.54	5.13	233

Much of the rise resulted from an increase of some 50 per cent in the general price level. But, as the figures show, the increase in mental hospital maintenance expenditures has been much greater than that. In part it reflects higher salary scales, but more particularly expansion in numbers of personnel. This has been based primarily on belief that a heavy investment in staff would result in returning an increasing number of patients to their communities and to productive lives.

Thus, during the postwar period, the number of physicians in state mental hospitals went up from 1,458 in 1945 to 2,661 in 1953, an 82 per cent increase. Similarly, the number of psychologists rose 574 per cent, social workers 165 per cent, graduate nurses 107 per cent, and other nurses and attendants 112 per cent.

As a consequence of this concentration on personnel, over-all staff-patient ratios increased from 1945 to 1953 approximately 76 per cent, despite the fact that the number of residents in hospitals rose 16.7 per cent during this period and the number of first admissions 39 per cent.

The number of patients discharged from mental hospitals to active lives has risen markedly on an over-all basis. In some hospitals, at least 80 per cent of first admissions are returned to productive activity within a year. A return of at least 60 per cent is becoming common.

Despite improvements of this magnitude, however, the states are facing ever-increasing obligations to house, treat and rehabilitate mental patients. From 1945 to 1953 the average daily resident population in state mental hospitals rose an average of 9,000 per year. If this trend continues, the sums required for buildings alone assume almost prohibitive proportions.

Even with an 82 per cent increase in the number of physicians from 1945 to 1953 there was only one psychiatrist for every 325 patients in state mental hospitals. And even though the number of psychologists climbed 574 per cent, there still were only 465 in all state hospitals—an average of one to every 1,142 patients. A number of hospitals still did not have a single social worker; the average for the nation was one to 488. The greatest shortage was among nurses; their average ratio was approximately one to 100 patients, an almost impossible nursing load.

Interstate Cooperation

FACED WITH shortages in personnel and with tremendous outlays for building programs, the states are joining forces for a more effective mutual attack on the problem.

Each of the last five Governors' Conferences has been concerned with this problem. In 1949, after an entire session on the subject, the Governors' Conference directed the Council of State Governments to undertake a comprehensive examination of the care and treatment of the mentally ill in the forty-eight states. The resulting Council report, published in 1950, emphasized overcrowding in buildings and the need for providing adequate facilities. In 1951, the Governors again discussed the whole problem. They underlined that it could not be solved without a program of prevention, research and training. Although well aware that care and treatment required the major share of a state's mental health resources, they recognized that ultimate reduction of mental hospital admissions could not be achieved by present methods alone. Hope for the future lay primarily in discovering better means of treatment and prevention—through research and through securing enough adequately trained personnel.

This led the Governors to adoption of a resolution directing the Council of State Governments to continue its work in the field, concentrating now on research, training and prevention. A study on these aspects was completed in 1953 and approved by the Governors at their annual meeting in Seattle. At the same time the Governors adopted a resolution to hold a national Governors' Conference devoted entirely to mental health, concentrating on training, research and prevention.

Thus the first National Governors' Conference on Mental Health was held in Detroit, Michigan, in February, 1954. Representatives of forty-six states and the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico gathered for a meeting which Governor G. Mennen Williams of the host state said "could well turn out to be one of the historic turning points in the ancient struggle of mankind against disease." Ten Governors, many legislators, mental health and other state officials, and leaders of all relevant psychiatric professions joined together for the first time to discuss the means of attacking this great modern problem.

The meeting was an inspirational one, but by no means only that. The Governors present adopted a concrete Ten Point Program on mental health —emphasizing means of training and research especially—which has received the widest distribution among Governors, legislators, budget officers, mental health officials and others. It has become a guide for action, and has been cited by many Governors.

The Governors' Conference as a whole, moreover, felt that specific steps should be taken on a cooperative basis among the states. They, therefore, directed the Council of State Governments to establish an Interstate Clearing House on Mental Health, to assist the states in organizing effective programs of interstate cooperation.

Regional Cooperation

ONE OF THE outstanding means by which the states are acting to solve mental health problems is regional cooperation.

Regional cooperation permits each participating state to obtain maximum benefit from the total resources of the area, rather than relying only on facilities within its own limited geographical boundaries. If resources permitted, each state individually might choose to provide training centers for each of the mental health specialties. But many states find it inadvisable or financially impossible to maintain all training facilities independently. The cost of buildings, laboratories and classrooms, and difficulties in securing first rate staff, often make it prohibitive.

A prime example of interstate cooperation for mental health is the program of the Southern Regional Education Board to pool the mental health resources of the southern states for a more effective attack on this extremely expensive and urgent prob-

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According to the Director of the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, Kenneth O. Warner, human relations come first in the art of being a successful executive—in government or anywhere else. Furthermore, he says, the art to a large extent is one that can be learned; one doesn't have to be born with it, and few people are. In this article Mr. Warner suggests some of the means that students of the executive role have found useful.

On Being a Better Boss

By Kenneth O. Warner

In government administration, as in private enterprise, a boss is anyone who is responsible for the work of another, whether it be one or a hundred or many more. Whether he is the head of a department, a division or a section, he discharges many of the same kinds of responsibilities as the chief executive does. Perhaps not as much—but the same kinds. Thus, the moment a man or woman becomes a supervisor, he becomes an executive or administrator—a boss.

What makes a good boss? If you ask a dozen different people, you will probably get a dozen different answers. If you read the literature on the subject, you will also find a variety of explanations. But a common thread of thought runs through the answers.

The heart and core of management is people. Machines and materials are managed by people; policies and programs are shaped by people; and good business relations flow from good human relations.

Those ideas, you may say, are commonplace. Indeed they are. But knowing how to make them work is far from being as commonplace as most of us would like.

I have a friend who is recognized as an outstanding authority on child psychology. But as his children grew up the neighbors hesitated to let their offspring associate with his children because they acted like "little monsters." My friend knew all the answers, but he did not know how to put into practice his tremendous knowledge of psychology.

A good boss, first of all, takes account of human factors. He places an extremely high premium on having satisfied and enthusiastic workers. If they are that, they probably will be productive. In the last quarter century business management has learned many important things about how to attain these goals.

The Hawthorne experiment in the Western Electric plant at Chicago almost twenty-five years ago was a ground-breaking approach to getting better human relations on the job. From that experience we discovered that working conditions, physical environment, light, heat, and hours of work did not necessarily result in increased productivity of assembly line workers. Actually, under certain conditions, employees turned out more work per hour with longer hours, less light, and in general, less satisfactory working conditions. The reason was that management consulted with these employees about how they could help improve their effectiveness on the job. The employees were made aware of management's problem, their ideas were sought, and their suggestions were considered. In short, they were treated as people, not cogs in an assembly line.

The Hawthorne studies showed that better production and morale are attained when employees are made an integral part of the work process, when they are permitted to exercise their ingenuity, when they are given recognition.

From this and a great deal of experience that most of us have had, we can conclude that the good boss will constantly recheck his thinking on what makes people tick; what makes them self-starters; what causes them to keep working; what motivates them to increase the quality of their work.

If he is going to get solutions to problems like these, one must recognize a cardinal concept about administration: No one arrives in this world endowed with all the "know-how" it takes to be a perfect executive. Of course, some talent is needed, some good mental equipment. But I read recently—and would agree—that "Anyone with a little talent, a lot of determination, an enthusiasm and willingness to work can become a good boss. It's a complex job. You can't learn it overnight. But you *can* learn it."

Just how does one go about learning to be a better boss? First, we can take a tip from the business world. In the better-managed businesses, nearly everybody talks about executive development and management training these days. Great impetus to the development of executives has been given during the past ten years by the Society for the Ad-

vancement of Management and the American Management Association. American business supports the latter organization to the extent of more than $2 million per year. This association conducts seminars and workshops and carries on extensive research on how to build better executives. Many of our leading corporations send their junior and senior executives to A.M.A. sessions and also to management short courses in such universities as Chicago and Harvard. They are willing to pay executive salaries, living expenses, and tuition which alone amounts up to $1,000 per man.

Governments—probably because they handle public funds—have not been willing to go as far as private management in spending money and making plans for the training of executives. Nevertheless, a number of states, including California, Michigan and New York, have had notable records in executive training during the past few years. In the federal government, executive training and development has progressed most rapidly among civilian employees in the Defense Department, no doubt because of the traditional emphasis upon officer training among the military.

In neither business nor government are good executives developed by accident. Even the best talent must be trained in order to get the best dividends from the investment in top managers.

DEFINITE avenues of personal development are open to government executives through business, professional, and governmental associations. Junior as well as senior executives in government can derive much from membership in at least one professional or governmental association. Such organizations concern themselves with improving standards and practices, with carrying on research and exchanging information.

Another most useful avenue open to every developing executive is the simple art of reading. As one successful executive told me: "You can't get to the top of this business unless you are willing to read, to study, and think about the problems of management." There is a rapidly developing body of knowledge in the field of business and public management that is available in print. Aside from basic texts, numerous periodicals are devoted to problems of management in general and special fields in particular. From these journals the conscientious executive can discover how his peers are dealing with their problems.

Much of this body of literature bears down heavily on how to handle employees to obtain more work and better services—which brings us back to our first point—that the core of good management is good human relations.

Some recent surveys point that up for us.

Dr. Rensis Likert, for example, Director of the Survey Research Center, University of Michigan, reports that bosses who do not "look down the throat of their employees" get more work done. He points out that where supervisors are more interested in people—employee relations—than production, they actually get more production. Conversely, low production units are frequently more closely supervised than a high production unit. Likert also says: "Foremen of high-production work groups report much more frequently than the foremen of low-production groups that their work groups perform well when they, the foremen, are absent. High-production supervisors, through group methods of supervision, apparently developed within the work group the expectation and capacity to function effectively whether the foreman is present or not. This is, no doubt, one of the reasons for the greater productivity of the high-production groups."

Likewise, when management is interested in employees' ideas and suggestions, morale has been demonstrated to be 50 per cent higher among employees. Likert reports that studies show much greater group loyalty and group pride among high-production groups than low-production groups.

A TREMENDOUS volume of management literature concerns itself with how people are motivated. Writing in the August, 1954, issue of *Advanced Management,* Cecil Goode listed the major motivations of people who work as follows:

1. Workers want to be a part of something worth while.
2. Workers want to be recognized for their accomplishments.
3. Workers want to work for leaders whom they can respect.
4. Workers expect to be paid in accordance with their achievement for the organization.
5. Workers like to feel a measure of security in their jobs.
6. Workers want a chance to get ahead.
7. Workers want a chance to participate in management planning and decisions which concern them.
8. Workers like to work in congenial surroundings.

Mr. Goode says: "The General Motors 'Why I Like My Job' study revealed that 'I like my associates' was the second most important reason for job satisfaction. The first was 'I like my boss.'

"We are coming to realize the need," he adds, "to

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Sound and expert local assessment is emphasized in this article as the key to improvement in local property tax systems throughout America. The author, Professor William G. Murray, head of the Department of Economics and Sociology at Iowa State College, suggests that state action in this field can bring much benefit—first by legislation on assessment organization and personnel; second by providing state assistance to local assessors. He underlines that the advantages of such measures go to the state governments as well as the localities.

State Action for Better Assessments*

By William G. Murray

Everywhere the pressure on the property tax is evident in America today. Rising school costs, from kindergartens through high schools, are the principal cause. But school costs are not the only factor. Higher costs and expansion of city and county services are also involved. In fact, because local governmental pressure for funds is so great, many states are finding that one of their most important activities is the financing of local services.

There was a time, not so many years ago, when public finance experts and other students of taxation made up their minds that the property tax had to go. It was to be replaced by other, more efficiently administered taxes that were more in line with the "ability-to-pay" principle.

But one important hurdle was overlooked: What other tax could replace the property tax? Every other tax—such as income, sales, inheritance, and the like—was being used up by the state and federal governments to what was widely considered a desirable limit. As a result of this over-all evaluation, the public as well as the tax authorities are now reconciled to the prospect of continued use of the property tax for years to come.

It may not increase a great deal; in fact other taxes, both locally imposed taxes and those which form the base of state aid, may be used increasingly as supplementary revenues for local government purposes. But the old fashioned property tax has a solid position in providing a portion of the local tax revenue for schools and for city and county governmental services.

Consequently, since we are likely to have the property tax, we should face up to the problem of improving its administration. Some in the past have taken a look at this problem, wrestled with it for a spell, and then thrown in the sponge. This is unfortunate, because some progress is being made, especially in a few states. And the study being given the question in other states augurs well for the future.

Better Assessments the Solution

Better assessments, it becomes increasingly apparent, provide the solution for many a state governmental headache which has arisen from the pressure on property taxes and large state-aid programs. Better assessments provide equitable treatment among individual taxpayers—using property value as a base. They also furnish an equitable means of distributing state aid.

Illustrations of the need for better assessments are evident in a large number of studies. Almost every state can furnish examples. One from Minnesota is shown in the figure on the next page. In this instance the study was made by a state committee authorized by the legislature to find ways and means of equalizing assessments so that assessed valuations could be used as a fair method of distributing state aid to schools. The striking lack of uniformity portrayed in the figure illustrated the need for better local assessments. In addition to the variation among districts, it should be recognized that at least an equivalent amount of variation exists within each of the 466 school districts when individual assessments are compared.

Assessment is a local function—but frequently state legislative action is the indispensable prerequisite to adequate local performance of it. Township (or, in New England, New York and Wisconsin, town) assessors, elected in the main, are still legally constituted assessment authorities in nineteen states. And townships (or towns) instead of counties are the official assessment units in parts of or all of these states. Continuation of this township policy makes much more difficult the introduction of the best professional methods which could improve the assessment situation. Another step in this same direction is the replacement of elected by

*This article is based on a survey of assessments made by the author in 1954 in thirteen midwest states plus Oregon and Wyoming. A report on the survey, entitled "Improving Property Assessments in the Midwest," was issued by the North Central Land Tenure Committee in November, 1954 at 207 Agricultural Annex, Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa.

appointed assessors who qualify through competitive examinations.

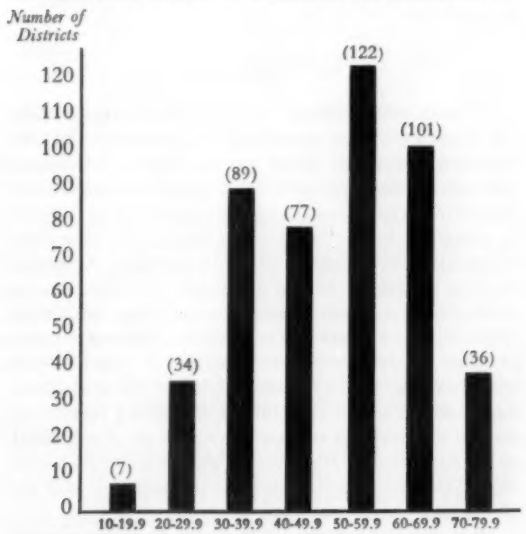
Why the Township Assessor?

IN FAR too many cases the original assessment is still being made by a township assessor whose salary and qualifications are far below the professional level that the valuation function warrants. This is not to say that good township assessors don't exist. But the township system works against obtaining them. And this is a situation that can't be changed until the state legislature acts.

Why do we tolerate "horse and buggy" assessments when we have moved beyond this level in other fields? In designing roads and bridges we take for granted professionally trained engineers. In checking the local milk supply we insist on a trained bacteriologist or veterinarian. In checking loans by banking institutions we insist on rigorous bank examinations by qualified personnel. We do not make a practice of electing engineers, bacteriologists, or bank examiners, it would appear, because we consider their work is of a specialized, professional nature. Certainly we want to elect our public officials at the policy-making level. But should the people be asked to pass at the polls on the technical qualifications of the specialists?

Even in the assessment field, the professional approach has been widely adopted in the larger cities.

LACK OF UNIFORMITY OF ASSESSMENT RATIOS AMONG SCHOOL DISTRICTS



Variation among 466 school districts in nine counties of Minnesota. Based on assessment-sale ratios and appraisals. From Progress Report of the Equalization Aid Review Committee, State of Minnesota, St. Paul, Minnesota, Feb. 1953.

Instead of electing precinct assessors to do independent precinct or ward assessments, one assessor for the whole city is elected or appointed, and he is allowed and expected to maintain a continuing group of trained personnel to do the valuation work. Where civil service or merit status has been achieved for this assessment personnel, it has been possible to build a highly competent professional staff. As evidence of the wisdom of providing this type of organization, we have today in the city assessment units the major group of trained professional personnel. What the larger cities recognized as good assessment organization years ago, and secured legislation to put into operation, is now a critical issue in many of the non-urban areas of the same states in which the same cities are located.

Township assessors have continued to persist because of inaction and public fear of what would happen if control were allowed to move to the county level. The time now has come to meet these arguments head on. The importance of the property tax in supporting needed local revenue and in serving as a base for increased state aid requires it. The fear of losing local control is no longer unanswerable, because a majority of the states—including all eleven in the West, all except one in the South, and several elsewhere—have adopted the county system. They provide evidence that this fear of control by the county is not justified.

States which have the township assessor systems, however, still make up a long list in the East and the Middle West. Only four of the thirteen midwest states surveyed by the author in 1954 have the county unit throughout—Iowa, Kentucky, Nebraska and Ohio. Illinois, Minnesota and Missouri have it in a portion of their counties. Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Minnesota and Wisconsin provide for county or district supervisors of assessments, but since elected township assessors still function in most cases, the supervisors do not have the authority of a county assessor.

Several states have endeavored to by-pass the local assessor by superimposing an equality area assessment on top of and in place of the local assessment. In one of them, for example, the state assigns a multiplier to each county in order to bring that county up to a statewide level. If the local level in one county is 20 per cent of the state department's desired level, then the multiplier assigned is 5, and all local assessments are multiplied by 5. If the level in another county is judged to be 40 on the basis of assessment-sale ratios and appraisals, the multiplier assigned is 2.5.

This by-pass fails to correct the major weakness in assessments—lack of equality at the local level. If my house is assessed at 30 per cent and your house, in the same county, is assessed at 50, multiplying by 2.5 is not going to change this inequality.

Furthermore, unless separate multipliers are prepared for individual townships and assigned to them, the inequalities between townships within the same county will remain after the county multiplier is used.

Good Original Assessments

THE TENDENCY in some states to substitute a county or district assessment supervisor for elimination of the township assessor has been noted. The object desired is to introduce modern, efficient methods through the means of a supervisor and at the same time retain the local autonomy of the township assessor. Unfortunately, experience indicates, about the only major achievement is the maintenance of local autonomy. This can be readily explained, since in most cases the township assessor is elected, feels a direct obligation to the electorate, and usually is the only person who actually visits, sees and evaluates the property items. In short, the township assessor makes the original assessment. As long as he is relatively independent of the supervisor there is no way to achieve uniformity.

Since the original assessment is the key to better assessments, state action is best concentrated on this local assessment function—not on equalizing or otherwise changing township or county assessments in a wholesale manner. This between-county equalization function, although important, comes second. *We need good original assessments first.*

But how do we get good original assessments? As already pointed out, a first step is an efficient assessment unit. This calls for a unit large enough to support a professionally qualified assessor. In general, that means at least a county, in contrast to a township. In some areas it might mean a district made up of two or more counties.

A second requirement in good assessment organization, still relatively new outside the cities, is the appointed assessor. If he is to have the qualifications of a valuation expert, there is a valid argument for his appointment from a list of candidates who have passed a qualifying examination. This is essentially the situation, for example, in Iowa, where all assessors, both city and county, are appointed by a board made up of the three local tax levying units (city, county and school).

So far the Iowa system of appointed assessors is working reasonably well. The assessors, in the main, are showing definite progress in professional advancement and are cooperating both on a regional and a statewide basis to achieve assessment uniformity in both the personal and real property fields. They have an active association, publish a monthly bulletin, and have initiated successful price-guide studies for personal property assessments.

A recent questionnaire distributed by the Iowa Farm Bureau to its members asked whether the present assessor law (in effect since 1948) is generally satisfactory, not satisfactory, or needs improvement. The answers were favorable.

In Kentucky a candidate for election as assessor must pass a qualifying examination. This examination, given by the Department of Revenue, emphasizes the professional nature of the assessment function. In order to be effective, of course, the examination needs to be rigorous.

An appointed assessor or one who has passed an examination does not in himself assure better assessments. The system, however, does provide a favorable organization for the making of improved assessments. A qualified assessor will have to use the recognized tools of the trade—maps, aerial photographs, soil surveys, building cost and price data, income checks, an appraisal card system, and other technical devices in making his valuations. In all probability he also will use various methods of checking his results, such as bench mark appraisals, boundary comparisons and assessment-sale ratios.

Reappraisal programs by outside firms, or by state or county personnel, have been suggested as a substitute for professionally trained assessors. Reappraisals often are needed, but this suggestion may overlook the continuing valuation service that is required in maintaining a mass reappraisal from year to year once it is made. New buildings, depreciation, rezoning, soil erosion, and similar factors are constantly changing the valuation picture. A reappraisal is no substitute for valuation ability in an assessor.

State Assistance

ASSESSORS, even though well qualified, can benefit from assistance provided by a state tax administration. This can be of various types. An important one is the appraisal of large and complicated properties which the county assessor finds it difficult to assess without expert assistance, such as a state valuation unit often is able to provide. A second type is provision of an appraisal staff which can work with the county assessor in carrying out a mass appraisal or reappraisal project throughout all or a portion of the assessment district. A third is personal assistance in organizing a set of assessment maps, aerial maps, card files and office procedures; and in counselling on such projects as bench mark appraisals, boundary checks, the making of assessment-sale ratio studies and the preparation and use of uniform price guides.

How far should the state go in providing assistance? There is still some healthy disagreement on this point. County assessors generally do not want supervision; they want assistance. On the other

hand, state tax administrations do not want to set up expensive valuation units that may or may not be used, depending on unpredictable decisions of county assessors or county boards. A mutual arrangement is the ideal; one in which the assessor and his board ask for certain types of assistance in advance, and one in which the state recognizes local autonomy by providing the help not in terms of directives but assistance.

Several states, including Kentucky and Oregon, have been experimenting with this latter form of assistance. Reappraisal service is the major assistance offered in the Oregon program. But this has interesting ramifications; for example, it has led to the development of an apprentice training program in which some of the state appraisal personnel have obtained positions as deputy assessors in the counties to assist in maintaining and keeping up to date the assessments after the mass reappraisal is completed. Furthermore, while the reappraisal is being made it is possible to assist the county assessor in reorganizing his office for more efficient operation.

An Improvement Program

A list of specific suggestions for improving assessments was prepared at the conclusion of the midwest survey of thirteen states. The suggestions, summaries of which follow, may be used by legislative study groups, state tax commissions, assessment boards, and individual assessors in evaluating the organization and operation of the assessment systems under their jurisdiction.

1. County unit in place of township:

The township in most cases is too small to support an assessor with adequate skill.

2. County assessor in place of township assessor:

A full time county assessor can employ competent help to do the field assessing under his supervision and thereby achieve local uniformity throughout the county.

3. High qualifications for the county assessor:

A. *Skill.* To be eligible for the assessor position, an individual should have certain qualifications, the most important being appraisal skill and administrative ability.

B. *Examination.* Some test or examination can be required to determine which individuals have the desired qualifications.

C. *Salary.* Unless the salary is in line with the qualifications, the position will not attract the type of assessor wanted.

D. *Appointment.* An appointed assessor may be able to come closer to providing impartial service than an elected assessor. Results of assessment where assessors are appointed should be studied closely.

4. Reassessment or reappraisal program:

If they have not been reappraised by competent appraisers in recent years, most counties need to be reappraised. This should not be done, however, until a skilled assessor has been appointed or elected. The county assessor can then recommend a plan to the proper county officials. It may involve state assistance, an outside firm, or a reappraisal made under his own supervision. In any case the county assessor should be in on the reappraisal from start to finish, because it will be his task to keep it up to date after it has been made.

5. Real estate assessment practices:

A. *Maps.* A system of maps, plats and aerial surveys is an essential unit in a good assessment office.

B. *Soils and cost data.* Soil and yield data for land, and cost data for buildings, are standard tools in modern appraisal.

C. *Bench mark appraisals.* An excellent way to build a good system of assessments is to make a detailed appraisal of several key or bench mark properties. Other properties can then be compared with these key units. The key units should be located in different parts of the county and represent typical units in these sub-areas.

D. *Appraisal card system.* Good assessment requires a system for recording data on building dimensions, building characteristics and value calculations; and on land quality and land value calculations for each tract assessed. This information on each unit provides the assessor and the individual taxpayer with the basic data which indicate the impartiality of the assessment.

E. *Assessment-sale ratios.* The county assessor is in an excellent position to use the assessment-sale ratio. He can check the sales to determine if they are *bona fide* and he can use the ratio results to measure the uniformity he is achieving. With a little assistance from the state tax commission the county assessor can do most of the work himself. In some cities and counties, assessors are carrying on their own assessment-sale ratio studies.

F. *Border checks.* An efficient method of inter-county equalizing is border checking. The assessors concerned drive along their common boundaries comparing the assessments on either side of the line.

G. *Advisory committees.* The assessor can use to advantage a citizens advisory committee to explain his methods and get public reactions.

6. Personal property revisions:

A. *Exemptions.* A wide diversity in exemption practice in the different states justifies special study of this problem.

B. *Household property.* Difficulty of getting this property listed and valued equitably suggests a limitation to relatively few large items of the luxury or semi-luxury class such as television sets, or the complete elimination of taxation of household property.

C. *Business property.* Use of an average inventory appears to be more equitable than the one date assessment.

7. Between-county equalization:

A. *Assessment-sale ratios.* These have proven the best basis for equalization of real estate assessments. Successful inter-county equalization requires good equalization within the county first. Eventual equalization of all property groups is attainable.

B. *Personal property.* More techniques are needed as a basis of comparing one county with another.

8. Educational activities:

A. *Assessors.* Schools and assessor clinics should be encouraged as a means of professional training, of picking up ideas and comparing notes with other assessors. Regional group meetings are excellent means of in-service training and communication. State colleges and universities should be invited to participate in educational activities.

B. *Public.* Assessors should have a continuing program of acquainting citizens with their assessment systems.

9. Research:

Assessors and state tax commissions can benefit from more research on assessment and related phases of the property tax. In addition to the colleges and universities, various foundations and groups are interested in cooperating on research programs—such as the National Association of Assessing Officers, the American Institute of Real Estate Appraisers, the American Society of Farm Managers and Rural Appraisers, the National Tax Association, and the Federation of Tax Administrators.

Such are some of the means by which, the survey indicated, local assessment procedures can be improved. Study, review, research and experience in different states can refine these methods and develop more. Certainly the objective is important today—to the state governments as well as to the localities.

Being a Better Boss

(*Continued from page 89*)

make the work place liveable so that the occupational one-third of our lives is as satisfying as the home, recreation, and sleep two-thirds are."

Not long ago I asked a top executive what he thought was the most important skill of a successful administrator. "Communication of ideas," he replied. In this view, communications means not only "sounding off," and "being understood," but also "taking in" ideas.

Did you ever try to winnow out the causes of frictions and misunderstanding in an organization? An interesting exposition of them is presented in an article by Martin Maloney which appeared in the July, 1954, issue of *Advanced Management*. He says misunderstandings occur because:

1. *People do not listen very well.* Many habitually engage in "marginal listening" like a housewife who does her chores to the blaring radio in the background in a half-attentive way. Then there is the "attentive listener" who hears the words that someone says but interprets them through his own experience and not necessarily as the speaker meant them. There is also a third kind of listener, known as the "projective type." He puts himself inside the speaker's skin, thus he knows what experience and feelings motivate the words of the speaker.

2. *People assume that words mean the same to everybody.* Sometimes we get into trouble when we fall into this common error.

3. *People assume that communications work in only one direction.* Maloney reported in a controlled experiment that only 25 per cent of the students in a public speaking class produced a summary of a speaker's remarks that came anywhere near being what he said.

What positive steps can be taken to prevent a breakdown in effective communication? Based on the analysis just summarized, these suggestions may be in point:

1. Recognize that words have meanings "only in context and only in relation to the experience of the person who is using the words."

2. Whenever understanding is important, provide for two-way communication.

3. Learn to listen by projecting yourself into the speaker, so that you will better understand him.

ONE OF THE best ways of becoming a good executive is to have the privilege of working with a skillful and successful executive. Often the so-called "political executive" is successful because he follows these practices as a matter of second nature. A "career executive" either in business or government can learn from the "political executive" who is adept at dealing with matters of urgent public policy as well as giving leadership to subordinates in his organization.

But the task of being an executive in government is many times greater than in industry. In responsible quarters we hear that government should follow big business in applying techniques of sound business management. Although it is true that our state and national governments can profit by following the lead of progressive business management in various respects, not all business principles apply to government administration. Departmental executives in many state governments operate larger businesses than any private enterprises in their states. Problems of the government executive are heightened because his job is complicated, varied, broad in scope and implication, subject to a multitude of pressures, and carried on in a glass house.

The experience of business leaders who have gone to Washington to serve in the national government bears out the view that the job of the government executive is more difficult than that of his business colleague. Business executives who have become successful government administrators recognize that fact.

All this calls for increased effort from alert government executives to exercise the greatest possible ingenuity in the conduct of their jobs. A man will be a better boss in government if he carries on a constant quest of self-improvement.

Adequate Highway System

(Continued from page 81)

9. Authorization for local units to consent to barricading of municipal streets.

10. Provision for enforcement and penalty provisions.

While thirty-seven states have legal authority to establish controlled-access facilities, many of the laws do not contain essential elements.

Tremendous Program Is Planned for Future

The Advisory Committee recognizes that it has come up with a program of tremendous size; a $25-billion additional expenditure over ten years is large even for our government. It does not seem quite so large, however, when we realize that total expenditures over those ten years, without this additional program, will amount to some $47 billion.

The committee looks into the future. The proposed highway improvements are intended to meet an economy supporting more than 200 million people, with a gross national product in excess of $500 billion as compared with $365 billion representing our present gross.

It seems to the committee that anyone who has faith in the continued growth of our economy cannot fail to recognize the need for highway transportation facilities that will serve an expanding and growing economy. I am sure that the provision for this national highway network, which we need, will prove a very important stabilizing force in our economy in the immediate years ahead.

Civil Defense

(Continued from page 85)

or the long reach of the hydrogen bomb in the countryside. In both urban and rural areas, unless there is a trained civil defense force in each community, we are gambling with the safety of the nation.

Thus the national security of the United States is not complete without civil defense. And civil defense is not complete without organized participation of the rural as well as the urban areas. There is no easy way to a national civil defense, any more than there is to a national military defense. Both require time, money and effort.

So long as we need military defense, we shall need civil defense. The more we diminish the possibility of a quick knockout, the more we diminish the possibility of a war. An enemy who does not feel sure of winning a war will not start one. The responsibility of leaders at all levels is to make the public aware and to keep it aware that the next war—if it comes—will surely be fought in this country as well as abroad.

Mental Health

(Continued from page 87)

lem. The Southern Governors' Conference last November adopted the major recommendations of survey groups working with the board, namely to establish a Southern Regional Council on Mental Health Training and Research, with a highly qualified staff for consultation and advice to the states, to work out appropriate regional arrangements and to promote training and research activities.

A similar survey of mental health training and research, in the Midwest, was undertaken in 1954. It was climaxed by the Midwest Governors' Conference on Mental Health in Chicago on November 30. The survey grew out of the Detroit Conference and a subsequent meeting at Indianapolis, in June, of mental health officials from each of the midwest states. Their Governors appointed the state mental health directors as chairmen of committees which undertook to inventory available resources in personnel, training and research. Many of the states issued extensive reports outlining their resources and needs and submitted recommendations for bringing them into closer alignment.

The Midwest Governors' Conference which followed this survey was almost a duplicate, on a regional basis, of the National Governors' Conference on Mental Health. Governors, legislators, mental health officials, representatives of mental health associations and the various professional disciplines participated. At the conclusion a series of concrete resolutions was adopted for implementation of the Ten Point Program.

The final recommendation, perhaps the most important, calls for establishment of a Midwest Governors' Committee on Mental Health as a continuing body, to meet one or more times a year, for regular examination of midwest mental health efforts and for cooperative action.

In the Far West a movement for regional cooperation in mental health also is getting under way. On March 25 and 26 a Western Interstate Conference on Mental Health was to be held in cooperation with the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education.

The states in the Northeast likewise are re-examining their previous conference activities and are thinking of the kind of regional cooperation that has been started in other parts of the country.

Such, in outline, is the unfolding pattern of interstate cooperation for mental health. For the first time, in all regions of the nation, there is a continuing official impetus, with the highest executive and legislative support, for major strides in the treatment and prevention of mental illness and in the promotion of mental health.

About the Legislatures

Research Appropriations.—A total of $2,307,232 was appropriated by the 1954 legislatures for interim investigations by specially created interim committees and commissions. A total of 177 such studies was authorized. In addition, the legislatures assigned thirty-seven studies to legislative councils, and during the 1954 sessions appropriated $784,758 to them, making a combined total of $3,091,990 appropriated for legislative research in 1954.

Four appropriations were for the 1954–55 fiscal year: $40,000 for the **Maryland** Council; $32,500 for the new **Massachusetts** Council; $61,633 for the **South Carolina** Council; and a supplementary appropriation of $55,000 for the **Arizona** Council. The remaining amounts were for the 1954–56 fiscal biennium: **Colorado** Legislative Council, $49,000; **Kentucky** Legislative Research Commission, for combined services, $342,625; **Louisiana** Legislative Council, $160,000; and the **Virginia** Advisory Legislative Council, $44,000.

The exact funds available to the newly created Law Revision and Legislative Services Commission of **New Jersey** have not been determined. The commission took over the unexpended funds of the former Law Revision and Bill Drafting Commission and the balance of a $50,000 appropriation made in 1953 to the legislative interim study committee whose reports and recommendations led to creation of the agency.

●

Orientation Conferences.—Several additional states have reported orientation conferences for new legislators in connection with the 1955 sessions. (See "About the Legislatures," March *State Government.*) A two-day presession school for new House members was held in **Florida** under the sponsorship of the Legislative Council. Various legislative service agencies participated. In **Indiana** a six-day conference, sponsored by the Governor, met at Indiana University several weeks in advance of the session. Administration proposals and various state problems were emphasized. In **North Dakota** a session was held for three afternoons and evenings under the sponsorship of the Legislative Research Committee, in cooperation with the State Bar Association. It was the first such conference in the state, and the legislature directed its Legislative Research Committee to provide a similar one at the next session. A "Legislators' School" in **South Dakota** met several mornings during the first week of the session; it dealt with legislative procedures and services and with reports and recommendations of the Legislative Research Council. The School of Law of the University of **Texas** sponsored its second biennial Legislative Institute for members of the Texas legislature; it was held at the university (in Austin) the second and third days of the session. **Washington** had a brief indoctrination session, recommended by the Legislative Council.

●

Charting Legislative Enactments.—Detailed charts and graphs showing the introduction and passage of bills day by day during legislative sessions are proving helpful in **Minnesota** and **Oklahoma.** Wall charts and graphs of this nature have been maintained in past sessions in both states and are being continued in the 1955 sessions, by the Legislative Research Committee in Minnesota and the Legislative Council in Oklahoma.

●

Legislative Manuals.—New and revised legislative handbooks and manuals have been prepared to assist the state and territorial legislators in their 1955 sessions. In most instances they were prepared by legislative service agencies.

Alaska legislators in 1955 have a legislative manual for the first time. Written by the Legislative Council, it contains sections on organization of the legislature, steps in passing a bill, legislative aids, and a section outlining daily legislative procedures. The **Indiana** Legislative Bureau has issued a revision of its 1928 manual; it contains both an annotated description of the legislative process and a bill-drafting guide. The **New Hampshire** Legislative Council in advance of the session circulated a manual containing legislative rules and information. The **Tennessee** Legislative Council also has released a *Legislators' Manual,* and similar manuals are being prepared in **Louisiana** and **Washington.**

The **Arizona** Legislative Council and the **Pennsylvania** Legislative Reference Bureau both have released bill drafting manuals for use in the 1955 sessions, and the **Utah** Legislative Council has recommended compilation of a comparable manual. In **Louisiana** the legislative clerks have been directed to prepare a legislative style book for use in the 1956 regular session.

●

Alabama Reapportionment Plan.—A report by the Alabama Joint Legislative Committee to Study Reapportionment has been prepared for the session that convenes in May. It recommends reapportionment of the House on a county bracket system—to give any county in a given population range equal representation with all others in that range; and reapportionment of the Senate to provide a Senator for each of the three largest counties and to group the remaining sixty-four counties into thirty-two districts, each to elect one Senator. The last Alabama reapportionment was in 1901.

●

Reorganization in Alaska.—The Alaska Legislature this year has adopted several procedural changes which were recommended by the Legislative Council, established in 1953. House Standing Committees were reduced from eighteen to twelve. Each Friday has been set aside for consideration of an uncontested bills calendar. The rules committee has been made responsible for preparation of a daily calendar. And, to assure adequate consideration of proposals by standing committees, a rule was adopted requiring a vote to place a bill upon the calendar when a committee reports unfavorably. The legis-

lature also approved numerous changes in the format of the legislative journal—use of double column, small type face, and other changes. As a result, the bid for printing the journal was reduced from $33,000 to $15,000.

●

Arkansas Service Coordination.—The 1955 Arkansas legislature has passed a revised Commission on Interstate Cooperation act, the effect of which will be to coordinate the state's major legislative services. The commission, of eight members, includes the Chairman, Vice-Chairman and one other member of the Legislative Council; the same representation from the Joint Auditing Committee; the Chairman of the Arkansas Commission on Uniform State Laws; and the Governor or someone appointed by him. In addition, the Legislative Council's staff director will serve as secretary to the Interstate Cooperation Commission.

●

Connecticut Clerical Procedures.—A study of legislative procedures has led the Connecticut Legislative Council to conclude that "the methods of operating the Clerk's offices and the system of keeping the records of the legislature are archaic, outmoded and inefficient and should be completely overhauled and modernized." The council recommends appointment of a bipartisan committee to work with the Senate and House Clerks to streamline and modernize these practices—the committee to be empowered to make desirable changes if no statutory changes are required and to recommend statutory revisions where necessary. Interest in the subject was spurred by the loss of important bills during the closing hours of the 1953 session.

●

Florida Bill Summaries.—A major service provided for the Florida legislature since 1949 has been the preparation of summaries, based on analyses of the full bills, showing the purposes and effects of each bill introduced. The summaries are prepared cooperatively by the Legislative Council staff and the Attorney General's Statutory Revision Department. They become available within twenty-four hours of bill introduction. An expansion of the service—the preparation of summaries for all amendments to bills as the amendments are offered—is contemplated for the session which convenes in April.

●

Massachusetts Legislative Film.—The Massachusetts Board of Educational Television has produced its first film, an educational movie which demonstrates the passage of a bill through the General Court (legislature). Actual legislators made up the "cast." The film shows the many steps and procedures that must be followed from the time a bill goes in the hopper until it may become law. Use of the film is planned for schools and for other educational purposes on existing television channels in the Commonwealth.

●

Minnesota Legislative Journals.—Changes adopted by the Minnesota Legislature as a result of suggestions by the Legislative Research Committee will reduce the 1955 House and Senate journals to two-thirds the bulk of those of the 1953 session. Resulting savings will offset increased printing and publishing costs. Major changes include elimination of unnecessary white space and superfluous headings, use of smaller type, and condensing of standing committee reports.

●

Missouri Bill Drafting.—Missouri's Committee on Legislative Research has reported on its first decade as a bill drafting agency for the legislature. In its first biennium, 1945–46, the agency drafted 347 bills; in 1949–50, a total of 471; and by 1953–54, 858. The latter figure represented 74 per cent of all bills introduced in the biennium.

●

North Dakota Bill Service.—By direction of the current legislature, the North Dakota Legislative Research Committee staff has taken on a new service—checking all enacted bills before they are transmitted to the Governor. The purpose is to ensure that constitutional requirements have been followed, proper form used, the proper section of the code amended, and also that the same section has not been amended twice. The legislature's appropriations committees, in another move, approved a special appropriation to enable the Legislative Research Committee to start a program of continuous statutory revision.

●

Oklahoma Lobby Controls.—The current legislative session in Oklahoma is considering several lobby control recommendations by its State Legislative Council. These include making illegal the use of "contingent fees," the practice by which a lobbyist's fee is dependent upon success or failure of a particular bill; more effective legislative controls over "state employees who act in the capacity of lobbyists"; and requiring the advance filing of briefs, in multiple copy, by those who appear before legislative committees.

●

Tennessee Legislative Procedures.—The 1955 Tennessee General Assembly has extensively revised various of its procedures in line with recommendations of the Legislative Council Committee. Standing committees have been reduced from a combined total of seventy-three in the 1953 session to seventeen for each house. The corresponding committees of the two houses are identically named. A printed weekly *Legislative Record* has been initiated as a new legislative service. Committee meetings and hearings are being held in committee rooms located in the library building and the new state office building rather than in hotels as during previous sessions.

●

Washington Drafting Procedures.—In its first session as the official bill drafting agency, the Code Reviser's Office—serving as staff for the Washington Statute Law Committee created in 1953—is following the informal practice of checking all legislative bills for form before introduction. Bills dropped into the hopper without such prior review are turned over by the hopper clerk to the Reviser's Office for clearance before being sent to the assignment clerk.

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